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ABSTRACT

Techniques for teaching collocation and word-association recognition as applied to the English as a second language class are suggested. Collocations are defined as phrases made of words which usually occur together, like "for the time being." Collocations and word associations are treated as synonymous. It is suggested that some words ought to be taught together (e.g., "long" and "short" go with things that can be long or short--pencils). Lexical words that are collated with certain structure words are also noted (e.g., "of" goes with glass---water; box---matches). Two broad divisions are also distinguished: (1) paradigmatic responses or words from the same grammatical class that can be substituted for another in a given context; and (2) syntagmatic responses, recognized when one element can relate directly to the other in a single context. It is suggested that the curriculum-maker should determine whether phonetics drills incorporate familiar or new vocabulary (i.e., what sounds collocate with what vocabulary), and the order in which the two should be presented. The following considerations are also addressed: the fact that some phrase structures absorb more words than others; and the problem of grouping structure words both with other structure words and with related lexical items. Additional contents include a list of 11 principles for teaching collocation or word association, information on publications containing collocations, and 17 instructional activities. (SW)

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TESOL Paper, March 16, 1983

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WORDS: WHAT GOES WITH WHAT?

There is an underlying ambiguity in the title of this paper since the title question does not suggest who is asking the question. Is it the teacher, the learner, or both? The answer is, of course, both, since nothing gets put into a curriculum until its value is perceived by the curriculum-maker, usually the instructor. And nothing gets "learned" until a student shares and acts on that perception. In a sense, this paper starts with a dictum from my old high school Latin teacher: "Nemo dat quod non habet"—No one gives what he does not first have. The motive for this presentation was a sense—almost a fear—that an important concept has been almost universally ignored in the planning of second-language curricula. If I succeed today in raising awareness as to its existenee, this paper will have served a useful purpose. Of course, I hope to go beyond that minimal goal in suggesting some techniques for teaching collocation and word-association recognition as applied to the ESL class.

Let me begin by defining the term "collocation." For William Mackey, collocations are "phrases made of words which usually occur together, groups like 'for the time being.'"[1] He, in turn, cites H.E. Palmer's Second Interim Report on English Collocations(1933). We might note that Mackey divides language structures into (1) sentence structures and (2) clause structures, phrases structures, and collocations.[2] Thus, he gives collocations equal status with all other sub-sentence constituents. Since much colloquial language is spoken in units smaller than the sentence, I submit that there is logic in Mackey's conceptualization.

The only other definition that I could find was in the Larousse

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Dictionnaire de Linguistique. Here, at great risk to the illustrious profession of translation, is an English version of it:

> "One calls 'collocation' the distribution established between lexical morphemes of an utterance, including the grammatical relations existing between these morphemes. Thus, the words 'construction' and 'construire', although belonging to two different grammatical categories, have the same collocations, that is, they are found(se rencontrent) with the same words."[3]

While citing the helpfulness of word associations in learning words, Mackey reminds us that the associations are not the same for all persons and for all languages.[4] For example, in English, more than half the speakers associate "chair" with "table", "seat", "furniture", or "sit." It is because of such regularity within languages that this paper will treat collocations and word associations as virtually synonymous. The one notion that I would stress for us as language-teaching practicioners is the point that some words—whether you call them word associations or collocations— ought to be taught together. For example, "long" and "short" go with things that can be long or short—pencils, string, hair etc. And we should be particularly interested in lexical words that we collate with certain structure words. For example, "of" goes with glass—water; box—matches; page—book etc.

What are the different kinds of links between words? Obviously, there is contrast(give-take), similarity(dimple-beauty mark), subordination(animal-dog), and whole-part(school-gym). We should not forget in these groupings the syntactically suggestive one, predication, to which could be added (1) the object with its attribute("the hot sun") and (2) predicate and object(tender a resignation). It is true that these latter involve semantic groupings, which could extend "ad infinitum." The criterion for selection, then, depends on what is being

taught in a particular lesson and on whether it is "economical" to group given words. At the beginning level, for example, although "river," "stream," and "brook" are possibilities for linking, "river" will probably suffice as a vocabulary item. At least, that is a possible judgment of an elementary-level teacher. In making such decisions, an instructor could consult the very useful word-frequency lists, to be disucssed later in this paper.

As we examine more closely these kinds of association, we note two broad divisions, identified by Insup Taylor in his Introduction to Psycholinguistics.[5] The first are paradigmatic responses or words from the same grammatical class. We know that certain linguistic elements are paradigmatic if one element can be substituted for another in a given context. The second are syntagmatic responses, recognized when one element can relate directly to the other in a single context. He cites an explanation of word association by a psychologist named Galton: frequently evoked responses are words that have been frequently placed into contiguity with their stimuli.

This has more than theoretical interest for us for, if true, we are strongly drawn to a conclusion that such "placements into contiguity" ought to be a planned part of any second-language curriculum and not relegated to that no man's land of "incidental learning." Taylor, however, sees a problem with this explanation, for it explains syntagmatic relationships, but not paradigmatic ones. He uses Katz and Fodor's "semantic markers" concept to account for paradigmatic responses. In this scheme of things, people break words into analyzable components. For

example, the word "man" breaks into the following semantic markers: living, human, adult, and male. A common paradigmatic response forms a minimal contrast with a stimulus. Thus, "woman" has all the essential markers of "man" but one. This would explain why young children give few paradigmatic responses to stimulus words. That is, they simply have incomplete lists of semantic markers. Taylor offers an addendum to Galton's explanation of word associations. Paradigmatic responses are accounted for not by natural experiences of "placing words in contiguity," but through test-taking practice, familiarity with mass media, and urbanization(although he does not explain the specifics of these influences). Resolution of this dilemma is not critical for our purposes. Of greater import is Taylor's related explanation of the term "associative meaning of a word."

The associative meaning of a word is the "sum total of the words a person thinks of, or a whole group of people thinks of, in relation to a given stimulus word."[6] This has given rise to the well-known WAT or word-association test, in which the subject produces as many words as possible in a given time—say, sixty seconds— in response to a given stimulus word. The average number of words produced by a large number of subjects in a given time is an index of the meaningfulness of that word. Since meaningfulness is an index of the variety or frequency of experiences represented with the concept, the more varied or frequent the experience one has with a concept, the more meaningful the concept becomes.[7] Moreover, in 1968 Kinbly and Garmezy found that we learn words better and faster when there is a variety of associated experiences with which to form connections, i.e., there is a functional relationship between the ease of learning and the meaningfulness of

the words. The more meaningful a word is, the faster it is learned as part of a list.

We should not be surprised by this confirmation of the importance of providing varied experiences in vocabulary learning. In the seventeenth century, Comenius posited a step-by-step method in which "all parts should be bound together so that one flows out of the other, and later units include earlier ones, and the last step should be traceable to the first by a clear chain of connection. Uniformity makes for rapidity and uniformity is encouraged by teaching things together. When opposites are taught side-by-side, one helps in teaching the other. Parallelism makes for greater clarity. No opportunity to draw parallels should therefore be missed."[8]

Gouin in the late nineteenth century applied the principles of associative psychology to language teaching by teaching together what was normally associated together. In the early twentieth century, Bréal, Jespersen, Sweet, Palmer, and later, I.A. Richards, moved the profession sharply away from word lists. The general method of replacement was the utilization of graded sentences in which new words reinforced what went before, with new words closely related to the known ones. Psychologists discovered that a greater number of items can be learned in a fixed amount of time if they are fitted into interconnected patterns. "We learn systematic and regular series more easily than irregular ones. Responses associated with one stimulus will also be associated with all other similar ones; the greater the similarity, the stronger the association. Therefore, the smaller the difference from one step to the next, the better the learning."[9]

What we are trying to establish is the inclusion of word associations

in a carefully graded curriculum. This is but another way of saying that language is a system of interrelated sub-systems. At every turn the curriculum-maker is or should be asking, "What goes with what?" A purely logical analysis reveals that sounds fit into words, words into phrases, phrases into clauses and sentences, and sentences into situations or contexts. At the most basic level of planning, the curriculum-maker asks, "Are the new phonemes found in the new vocabulary? Does each intonation pattern fit into utterances at the level in which it is introduced?"[10] Very practical questions must be answered in this first operation, especially this one: "Will the phonetics drills incorporate familiar or new vocabulary?" This is another way of asking what sounds collocate with what vocabulary, and what is the order in which the two should be presented. In keeping with twentieth-century emphasis on gradation of material, it would seem in order to teach the vocabulary first. While sounds as immediate constituents of words, phrases, and larger units obviously enter into collocations, they will not be treated in this paper for lack of time.

It is a truism that not all words fit into the same phrases, clauses, and sentences. Phrase structures vary not only in length and structure, but also with respect to the lexical units allowed in certain frames. Mackey contrasts "make" and "ask" in this respect.[11] We can say,,"I asked him to do it" but not "I made him to do it." Viewed as collocation, this contrast yields two distinct entries for the planner's inventory: (1) to ask a person to _____ and (2) to make a person _____.

There is not doubt that the greatest number of collocation mistakes stems from phrase-structure violations. In addition to the word-selection problem illustrated above(ask vs. make), there is the fact that <u>some phrase</u>

structures absorb more words than others. For example, the phrase "on + noun"(without a determiner) has a more limited range of fillers than "in + noun" since the latter can be filled with many abstract nouns(in faith, in truth, in pain), while the former is limited to a few fixed expressions like "on purpose" and to the days of the week(on Monday, etc.). This raises the question of how to sensitize students to such quantitative variations in frame content. One solution is to present model phrases in graphic form that suggests the scope of the frame fillers. A flat horizontal rectangle containing two or three model utterances of the "on" example above, for example, could be juxtaposed with a tall verticle rectangle filled with several models of the"in" structure, the two tables followed by short semantic notes describing the differences in usage.

Then there is the problem of grouping structure words both with other structure words and with related lexical items. This seemingly obvious planning step has been often ignored. This happens when question words are presented in one lesson and the structure words needed for varied answers to the respective questions are spread out over several other lessons. Even when correct prepositions are included in a lesson, the planner faces the question, "How many appropriate nouns should be used with each preposition?" Such a question assumes a closed domain of vocabulary in a teacher-directed lesson. An alternative strategy might be an open-ended approach in which students are encouraged to add lexical items to a structure, using a dictionary and their past language experience. This could take the form of a controlled writing exercise in which students are told to write a situational dialogue that includes phrase-structure A so many times. For example, write a dialogue about class schedules that repeats the structure "on + days of the week at least eight times. If this were combined with small-group work in which stu-

dents practiced each other's dialogues, the recombination practice for each structure would increase geometrically. The same open-ended approach is possible in the construction of pattern drills. A still further reinforcement takes place if students have to prepare questions based on their dialogues or drills. These are hardly original ideas but they are, I believe, partial solutions to the phrase-structure recognition problem. Additional techniques are offered in the appendix to this paper.

At a more macro level, phrases fit into clauses and sentence structures. A pertinent question here is, "Do all, most, some, or few of the lesson's phrase structures fit into its clause and sentence structures?" For example, if the lesson teaches the verb "take," will it also include (a) an adequate supply of "takers" (b) things that can be taken, and (c) relevant phrases like "from noun"and "to noun," with some thought to the places from and to which things are taken? In some materials, phrase structures have little to do with the target syntactic patterns.

At this point I wish to cite an excellent example of tight fit between phrase-structures and syntactic structures. It is a work of four small volumes by A.S. Hornby entitled Teaching Structural Words and Sentence Patterns. This is not a commercial endorsement since I am not even sure that this 1959 work is still in print. I refer you to it as a beautiful illustration of how curriculum linking in materials development leads naturally to classroom activities. Here is how a lesson is organized for the topic "another" vs. "others." Using pens, pencils, keys in a box, a ball, books, pictures on the wall, and other objects, Hornby puts the class through series after series of exchanges using "another". For example, "I have some keys in this box. Here's a key. Here's

another key. And another. Take out your books please. Are there any pictures in your books. (Yes there are.) There's a picture on page two. There's another on page six. There's another on page ten, etc. etc."[12] He then uses pairs of objects to introduce "the other." Finally, he contrasts "some of" with "the others": "Where have I put my books? Where are they now? Some of them are on this desk. The others are on Tom's desk."[13]

There is a final view of collocations offered by the Czeck linguist, Vilém Mathesius. It is, frankly, a much narrower view, but it adds some depth to our treatment of the topic, and it reminds us of an important sub-class of collocations, noun compounds. He discusses noun compounds, distinguishing freely combined expressions like "black bírd" from what he terms a collocation, "bláckbird." He defines collocation briefly as "a closed fixed combination."[14] In a free combination, the first term can be replaced with many substitutions; in a collocation, the first morpheme is riveted to the second and cannot be moved to another part of the sentence. An important fact about an English substantival compound or collocation is that when it takes on a qualifying function, i.e., when it becomes an adjective, it drops the plural ending. Thus, three-bedrooms becomes "a three-bedroom house"; fine arts, a "fine-art exhibit." Clearly, this tendency can be taught through transformational drills and written exercises. (See examples in the Appendix.)

Another tendency of such collocations(i.e. those with an adjectival first term) is to have the first element expressed by another collocation, giving us a three-term expression, e.g., motor(car) show or secondary(school) teacher.

Mathesius identifies verbal compounds that resemble collocations in that the first term originates in (a) an adverbial phrase reduced to a

single word, e.g., stage struck(struck by the stage), (b) a fixed adverb(downcast, forthcoming), (c) a noun(grass-smoking). Finally, he refers to that colorful group resembling compounds even though the components undoubtedly keep their independence as words. Examples of this type are: bread and butter, whiskey and soda, knife and fork etc. The practicioner must again ask when, where, and how these expressions are provided for in the curriculum. Again, quite frankly, the major problem from a pedagogical point of view is how to present such expressions in the first instance, since there are ample completion and Cloze techniques for testing them.

Collocation Sources

After looking at definitions and collocation types, we turn to the matter of finding collocations. This both is and is not a problem. It is not a problem in the sense that collocations are found everywhere—in people's speech, in news headlines, in dictionaries, and in special word lists. In fact, over-abundance of materials is the problem in that it thrusts us squarely up against that recurring need to select and sequence. I must confess that I have not advanced to the stage where I have pre-packaged collocation lists for specific courses. What I shall do now is share with you some of the finds that I have made in preparing this paper.

First, I strongly recommend Eric Partridge's A Dictionary of Catch Phrases. He explains catch phrases as being "not, in the grammarians' sense, phrases at all, but sentences."[15] They are like proverbs and clichés, although they are more pointed, fresh, and human than the latter. Some originate in too famous quotations and they often supply conversational gambits. I discovered that many repeat extensively certain structural patterns as in the list of "Don't" expressions included in the Appendix.

Another useful book is Adam Makkai's Idiom Structure of English, espe-

its "Phrasal Compound Idiom" list on pages 321-340.[16] Perusing this list, one is struck by the tendency of colors to enter into such compounds. Thus, we have blackbird, blacklist, blackmail, blue blood, blue book, pink slip, redcap, redcoat, redneck, white paper, yellow belly, yellowjacket, yellow pages, yellow streak and so forth. His list of irreversible binomial idioms like over and out, part and parcel, salt and pepper, ready, willing, and able, Mutt and Jeff, dead or alive, not for love or money, for better or for worse, do or die, heads or tails, hit or miss, neither fish nor fowl, etc., provide ample material for the construction of classroom exercises and games.

Humorous material always enlivens a class. In this vein, I wish to cite the Speaker's Handbook of Epigrams and Witticisms by Herbert V. Prochnow.[17] Like proverbs and aphorisms, this material often embodies contrasting thoughts with contrasting key words or relational thoughts and words(cause-effect, noun-verb alliances etc.) To quote just one of them—and I assure you that it does not apply to this speaker—"Plagiarists are always suspicious of being stolen from." The ironic relational words here are, quite obviously, "plagiarists" and "stolen from." A word-guessing exercise using witticisms appears in the Appendix. We should note that in this kind of completion exercise it is less important that students pick the exact word to complete the witticism than that they practice thinking about word relationships. It is quite conceivable that some of the blanks could be filled in with more than one word.

Many phrases and memorable sentences come from famous quotations. Three works deserve mention here. Perhaps the best-known is Magill's Quotations in Context.[18] The first sentence of the preface makes an important point: "There are certain forms of verbal expression that stand apart from ordinary conversation because of the effectiveness of their impression on memory." He refers to aphorisms(proverbial sayings), which are the easiest sentences

to remember for their sense "rests invariably on some familiar truth or belief generally accepted as applicable in a given situation." This book, with its attractive type and centered headings is a very good source for phrase structures. For example, there are about a dozen comparison aphorisms with the structure, "as_____as"("as dead as a door nail"). And, of course, the original context of each aphorism is fully explained.

A similar but much more extensive work is the International Thesaurus of Quotations compiled by Rhoda T. Tripp.[19] In it the more than 100 topics alphabetically arranged yield several thousand pithy quotations. Examples: (Holidays)—"If all the world were playing holidays, to sport would be as tedious as to _____(to be completed by the audience; correct answer is "work."); (Prophecy) "A prophet is not without honor save in his own country ; (Reputation) "A good name keeps its lustre in the darkness ; (Suffering) "We are healed of suffering only by experiencing it to the full; (Beauty) "A beauty is a woman you notice; a charmer is one who notices you .

Another book of the word-list variety is entitled Brewer's Dictionary of Phrase and Fable, revised by Ivor H. Evans.[20] This basic word book has been up-dated constantly since 1817. It is not only a reference for mythical names and words, but an excellent idiom book. For example, it gives all collocations built on colors, including phrases incorporating the color words. It is alphabetically arranged by key words. Thus, the"bitter end" is listed under "b". Also, verbs are followed by all the idioms of which they are a component(e.g. to foot the bill). When derivatives of a given word both enter into collocations, they are listed together. It often gives the historical or etymological origins of an expression. Of special interest is the fact that all of the adverbial collocation units appear in alphabetical

order, with all their major sayings, e.g. "out" as in "out on a limb," "to go all out," "to have it out," "to out-do someone."

Finally, there is one general reference source that performs a particularly valuable service. I refer to the Reader's Digest Family Word Finder.[21] And the service in question is that of providing examples in context of 10,000 words together with their synonyms and antonyms. These model sentences are a rich source of word associations. For example, the model for "airport" is "Be at the airport a half hour before_____." Students could provide various completions like "flight time" or "departure." The actual answer is "the plane leaves." Of course, any good dictionary will provide model sentences.

I shall end this brief book review section with a few more scholarly references. Adverbs not only appear in collocations; they are found in various parts of the sentence according to their meaning. A detailed listing of adverbs by sentence position has been compiled by F.W. Householder, Jr., in his study, A Preliminary Classification of Adverbs in English.[22] Some of the positions for which lists are provided include: initial (sentence-linking adverbs); initial(but not sentence-linking); "subjective" (immediately following the subject), and others.

An empirical study with a research design aimed at identifying collocations and strength of relationship is Sidney Greenbaum's Verb Intensifier Collocations in English.[23] It points out the tendency of collocations to have separable elements on occasion(compare "They collect stamps together" with "They collect many things, but chiefly stamps." Some of the research procedures for identifying collocations with native informants are but one step removed from classroom exercises(recall of usage test, preference test, evaluation test, completion test). More specifically, it measures

the strength or probability of certain intensifiers with certain verbs, and the appendix lists all the intensifiers with different verbs, including the frequency data for each association. For example,"greatly admire" has a frequencey of 78% while "greatly need" combines in only 2% of the observations. Hardly a reference manual, this monograph does treat one specific sub-class of collocations, the verb intensifier.

Finally, for those interested in knowing precisely the frequency of usage and hence the practicality of any given word, there is the Living Word Vocabulary, edited by Edgar Dale(co-author of the Dale-Chall Readability Formula) and Joseph O'Rourke.[24] This computerized list of 43,000 items is used by the editors of the World Book Encyclopedia as one check on the reading level of their manuscripts. It shows the percentage of students familiar with a given word in grade levels 4,6,8,10,12,13, and 16. Needless to say, this tool would be invaluable in individualizing reading or exercise material for an ESL class.

Pedagogical Principles

The collocation or word association is both a wondrous thing to behold and a mystery. Since preparing this paper I find myself collecting them almost as a hobby. In a profession that traditionally thinks in terms of paragraphs, sentences, sounds, and utterances, how do we make room for a unit of speech so familiar that we do not see it? The following thoughts, coupled with the modest techniques in the Appendix, represent first steps toward full recognition of the phenomenon by teachers.

1. Select some collocations for every chapter and lesson plan.
2. Relate grammar to vocabulary and vice-versa in every lesson plan.
3. Analyze the table of contents of your textbook and, for each grammatical topic, make a list of related lexical words. When

a book fails to make sufficient links, supplement it with your own materials.

4. Listen to people speaking, including yourself. Take note and make notes of the collocations you hear.
5. Use techniques which require students to guess missing sentence and phrasal elements.
6. Provide re-entry and repetition of each expression in new contexts (activities) as a way of increasing the word's meaningfulness.
7. Brainstorm for multiple associations, remembering that while a collocation is usually a fixed expression, the mental operations necessary for learning them involve experimentation and word play.
8. Exploit student errors, many of which involve wrong collocations. Insist that students concentrate on phrase structure rather than isolated words and use as many activities as possible to drive home the point.
9. Draw lines, arrows, circles and any other graphic to show the unity of phrase structures.
10. Encourage students to speak in phrases without experiencing shame.
11. Inspire students to collect memorable phrases, a hobby with long-range benefits. Have them keep a notebook full of them and, on occasion, exchange them with other students. Let some student material find its way into your testing program.

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West Virginia University
March 16, 1983
TESOL Conference
Toronto, Canada

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[6]Ibid., p. 70.

[7]Ibid., p. 71.

[8]Mackey, op. cit., p. 205.

[9]Ibid., p. 207.

[10]Ibid., p. 210.

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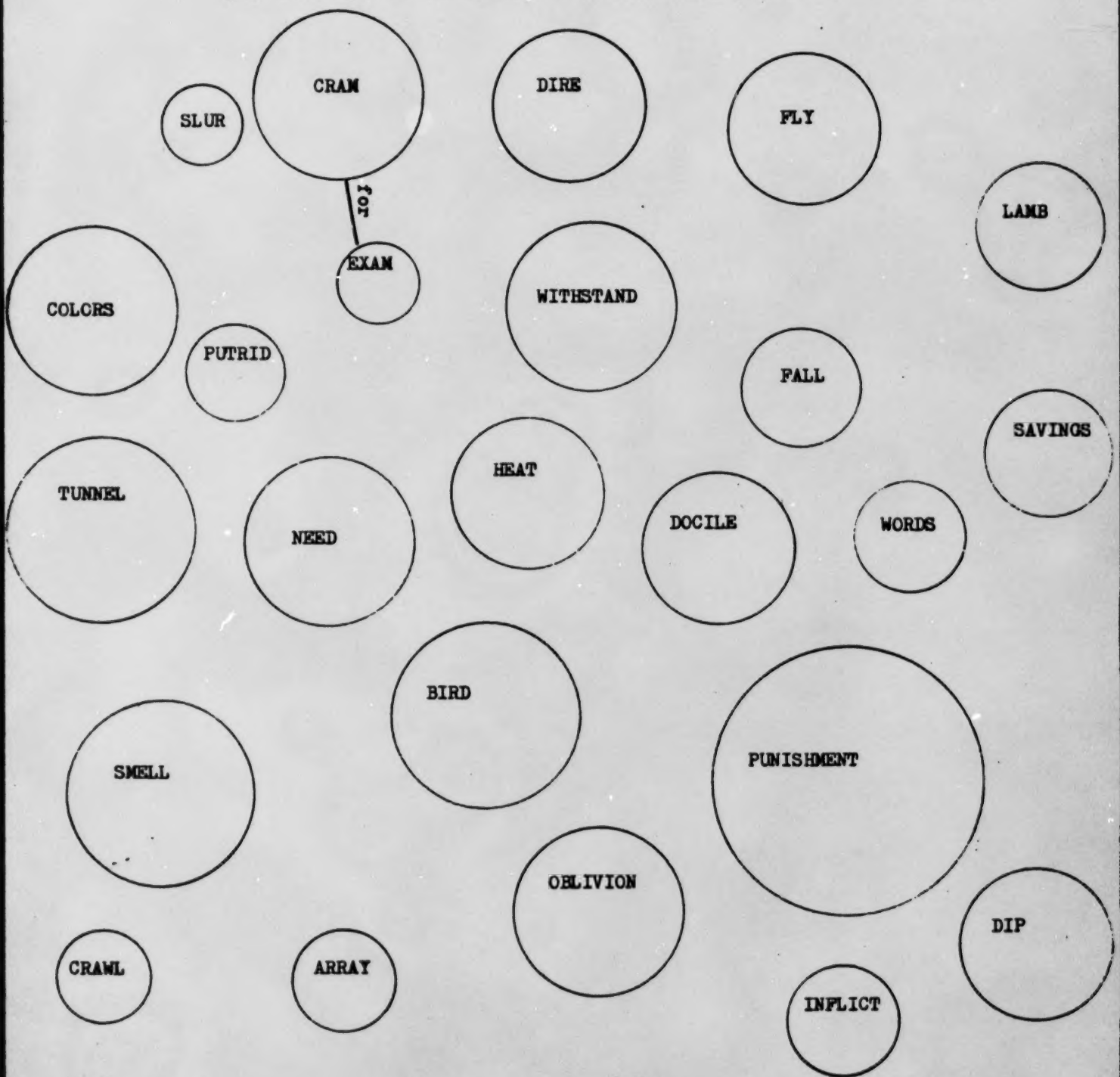
1. Word Nuclei. Purpose— to demonstrate the association of lexical words and, indirectly, the relationship of structure and lexical words.

Directions: Draw lines connecting each pair of words that are often found together. Be prepared to explain and illustrate(in a sentence) your findings. If possible, write missing words on a connecting line.



2. Sentence-Parts Collocation.

Pattern A: S-V. Complete each sentence by using a verb which logically follows the given subject.

Example: The bomb explodes.

1. Birds _____.
2. Water _____.
3. The fog _____.
4. A leader _____.
5. Scissors _____.

Pattern B: SV-O. Complete each sentence by providing a logical or probable direct object.

Example: The president appointed a new cabinet. (commission etc.)

1. Birds eat _____.
2. Newsboys(girls) deliver _____.
3. The prince helped Cinderella put on the glass _____.
4. The strike caused much _____.
5. I accept your _____.

Pattern C: Adj.-N. Complete each sentence with an appropriate(logical or probable) adjective.

1. At the end, the speaker received a _____ applause.
2. The problem is, she keeps _____ company.
3. I always said the project would become a _____ elephant.
4. It was a _____ hurricane.
5. President Reagan is afraid of the _____ guerrillas.

Pattern D: Adv.-V; or Adv.-Adj.; or Adv.-Adv.

1. Speak _____ but carry a big stick.
2. That is _____ untrue.
3. I saw the accident, but was anyone _____ injured?
4. I promise I'll never do it _____.
5. We are a _____ advisory group.

3. Descriptive Crosswords: Purpose—to practice associating adjectives with nouns.

Directions: Teacher supplies a noun. Class writes it vertically on paper. They then write an adjective that describes the noun and that starts with the same letter. Then they move on to another letter.

Example: Gracious
Interesting
Refined
Loving

Variation with adverbs: Loyally
Obsessively
Very much
Energetically

4. Analogy Completion. Purpose—to engage in comparative thinking with words.

Directions: Players are seated in a compact group(or perhaps in two circles for two different teams). Teacher reads an analogy such as "Father is to son as mother is to _____." The first player to call "daughter" scores one point. The teacher proceeds to read others quickly.

Examples: Heat is to fire as water is to _____.
Water is to thirst as food is to _____.

Variation: He's strong as a(n) _____. (rich as a; blind as a etc.)

5. Famous Pairs. To learn or review the established collocational pairs of English words.

Directions: (This could be done either as a writing exercise or orally; either in a competitive or non-competitive framework.)

Give the last word of each of the following "famous pairs."

crime and _____; cloak and _____
hit or _____; flotsam and _____
by leaps and _____; for better or for _____

6. Famous sayings: Sentence Completion. Purpose—to demonstrate familiarity with famous sayings.
Directions: Complete the following famous sayings by providing the missing word(s).

a. Genius is 10% inspiration and 90% _____.(Edison)
b. Don't give up the _____.(Adm. Dewey)
c. There's a sucker born every _____.(M. Twain)
d. Go West, young _____.(H. Greeley)
e. June is the month of brides. The other eleven are devoted to _____.
(Wall Street Journal)

7. Catch-Phrase Completion. Purpose— to test familiarity with catch phrases in English.

Directions: Complete the following catch-phrases by supplying the missing word(s).

Examples: Age _____ beauty!
Don't get your _____ up.
Don't all _____ at once.
Don't _____ anything I wouldn't _____.

8. Context Search. Purpose— to discover the meaning of a collocation by looking for contextual clues, especially punctuation marks and definitions in apposition. This can be done with isolated sentences or, better still, with whole paragraphs.

Directions: Look for the meaning of the underlined expressions in other parts of the sentence or paragraph. Be prepared to explain the meaning to the class and to use the expression in a different context(sentence).

Example: Don't be so high and mighty, or pride will be your downfall.

9. Association Chain. Purpose— to practice word associations.

Directions: Teacher starts by giving the class a two-word phrase, e.g., deep breath. Student 1 starts by taking the second word and making it the first word of a new phrase. (Note: The student may use any derivative of a word, changing a noun to a verb etc.)

Example: deep breath; S1—breathe in; S2—in trouble; S3—trouble sleeping etc.

10. Leap Frog. Purpose— to practice word associations.

Directions: Teacher starts by giv ing a pair of unrelated words,e.g., pen- sky. Student 1 makes a pair of related words starting with pen. S2 makes a pair of related words starting with sky; S3, a pair of related words starting with S1's second term; S4, a pair of related words starting with S2's second term, and so forth.

Example: T: pen-sky; S1—pen-write; S2—sky-bird; S3—write-paper; S4—bird-feather; S5—paper-plate, and so forth.

11. Missing Link. Purpose— to complete a scrambled sentence by providing the missing element.

Directions: Unscramble each of the following sentences while adding the single word needed to make it a complete thought.

Example: gain—ventured—nothing
Answer: Nothing ventured, nothing gained.

12. Odd Word Out. Purpose— to develop recognition of word relationships.

Directions: Teacher gives a list or reads a list of words, one of which does not fit with the others. Student tells why it doesn't fit.

Example: boy tie shoelace knot arm

Note: Words in this exercise should be arranged so as to form a complete picture or tell a coherent story, broken only by the inappropriate word.

13. Riddles. Purpose— to think about clues leading to particular words.

Note: These riddles stress the location or environment of a word, or how it relates to other words.

Example: When it rains, I keep your head dry. Answer: You're an umbrella.
Follow-up activity: Teacher presents the terms of each thought on a transparency, e.g., rain—keep dry—umbrella. Sentences are then re-produced by using these elements.

14. A Few Don'ts. (From Eric Partridge, A Dictionary of Catch Phrases)

Try completing these common catch phrases.

Don't all speak _____.
Don't hold your _____.
Don't just stand _____.
Don't make a federal _____.
Don't I _____!

15. Sample Collocation Errors. (In case you still do not believe that word associations are important.) The following errors appeared in student compositions of ESL students writing on the topic of "home life." Note the frequency of word-association mistakes.

I asked my roomate, who is a good-living habit man.
In the week days, ...
I live with four other Chinese students in Jones Avenue.
Every night I set my alarm clock at 7 a.m.
After all these works have over....
After I had washed my face and brushed up my teeth,....
My instructor's office was in the third floor.
I headed for the left.
Oh, I was in time! (for an appointment)
...due to I was much engaged in...
I cannot return these clothes because I bought them from sale.
I had a lesson. (after a misadventure)
After I cleaned myself up in the bathroom....
Before I left to school....
especially in the situation that your parents give you fully attention at home.
Then I straighten up to the kitchen.
I called up back to Taiwant every Sunday morning.
Now I am getting used to live with my friends.
After a few minutes later...
I like to cook very much so I always expect my turn coming up soon,
but I dislike to clear the table and to wash the dishes.
I have always no time to relax in a morning.
This is a very big problem to me because the class is taught at Evansdale
In a morning I usually get up at 8:30 a.m. campus.
So I had been thinking about which way I should take: dropping or going on.
She promised to give me the making-up test, with smiling.
I'll do my best though I have a lot of problems about the lecture.

16. Adjective Game. Purpose: to practice using adjective opposites.

Directions: Divide the group into two teams. The first player on one team says something good about Bill, using an adjective beginning with A. The first player on the opposite team counters with something bad about Bob, also beginning with A. Go on to B, C, etc.

Example:	First Team	Second Team
	Bill is able.	Bill is awful.
	Bill is brave.	Bill is boring.
	Bill is concerned.	Bill is careless.

J. Murphy, TESOL, '83
Appendix

Newspaper Headline Completion—

Directions: Write out the complete headline, using the partial headline and the missing word(s). All parts are found on this page.

Sutton can't follow Ryan's

Temporary

conditioning

exists, depressed told

Special panel found Navy

employment a permanent job

Hope

glut

act

24

Exercise club stresses

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